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ABSTRACT

Currently, men hold the majority of superintendencies in the United States. A 2000 study found that 94.9 percent of American superintendents are white and 86.6 are male. Only 13.2 percent of the nation's superintendent positions are held by women, 91.6 percent of whom are white and 7.1 percent are minority. The absence of mentoring relationships, role models, and networks are frequently cited in the literature as primary reasons why more women do not go into the superintendency. This study was conducted to gather descriptive data on female and male superintendents in South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida involved in a mentoring relationship and to examine the perceived helpfulness of career and psychosocial mentoring functions provided by their mentors. Hypotheses to be investigated involved whether differences exist between same-gender and cross-gender mentoring relationships. Data were collected using mailed survey forms. Statistical analysis of data shows that male mentors were chosen more frequently by both male and female superintendents. Few females were selected as mentors. Mentors for Caucasian and female superintendents were predominately Caucasian males. Further research is recommended comparing groups of superintendents involved in mentoring programs at various stages of their careers, and comparing groups of same-gender and/or cross-gender superintendents with various ethnic backgrounds. (Contains 124 references.) (RT)

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A Regional Study of Gender Differential Perceptions of Mentoring Functions in Accessing the Superintendency

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INTRODUCTION

America's public schools demand leadership excellence in the superintendency. Cultural and educational criticism regarding the decay of public education and the emergence of complex societal demands have created a crisis in the schools. Compelling arguments for improving classroom instruction, and fundamentally altering the manner in which schools are structured, managed and governed, not only challenge conventional assumptions about the nature of schooling, but also call for redefining superintendents' work (Glass, T., Bjork, L. & Brunner, C., 2000).

Who are the men and women leading America's public school systems? What are "the tricks of trade" in walking the path to the superintendency? Finally, why do so few women and minorities occupy the highest ranking and top paying position in our nation's schools?

Currently, men hold the vast majority of superintendencies in the United States (Carlon, 1972; Konnert & Augenstein, 1995; Grogan & Smith, 1998; Brunner, 1999, 2000). The 2000 study of the American school superintendency found 94.9 percent of American superintendents are white and 86.6 percent are male. At

present, women occupy 13.2 percent of the nation's superintendent positions. To date, 91.6 percent of America's female superintendents are white and 7.1 percent are minority. This data confirms a dramatic underrepresentation of these two female groups in relation to white males.

Women dominate the field of education profession as teachers, elementary school principals and central office employees. However, there remains a disparity among men and women serving in the capacity of superintendent. Of the more than four million professional educators in the nation (Blount, 1998) fewer than 2,000 women uphold the position of superintendent (Glass, T., Bjork, L. & Brunner, C., 2000). Furthermore, justification for increasing the numbers of women in upper-level education administration is most often based upon the disproportionate numbers of females who hold administrative positions. (Glass, T., Bjork, L. & Brunner, C., 2000). Although men and women are finding superintendencies faster in their careers, influences of old boy/old girl networks coupled with other discriminatory factors play a notable role in the ease of accession to the superintendency for male and female educational administrators.

Mentoring has served as a powerful developer of human potential throughout the centuries, and has assisted novices being inducted into, and succeeding in, their chosen profession. Research indicates that effective mentors provide valuable career and psychosocial assistance for aspiring superintendents as they progress in the profession from induction to independence (Kram, 1983; Pavan, 1986; Shakeshaft 1987, 1989). Career functions are considered to be those endeavors, undertakings and actions carried out by mentor to further advance the career of the protégé'. Career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching and protection, and challenging assignments. Psychosocial functions are the affective, more supportive behaviors bestowed by the mentor to assist the protegé in meeting and overcoming psychological and emotional challenges encountered while seeking to advance professionally. Psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation; counseling and friendship. (Kram, 1985).

The absence of mentoring relationships, role models and networks are frequently cited in the literature as a primary reasons why more women do not go into the superintendency (Shakeshaft, 1987, 1989; Pigford and Tonnsen, 1993; Gupton and Slick, 1996). Thus, mentoring is

vital in building the capacity for aspiring superintendents, and also in meeting the needs of women and minorities entering the profession.

Purpose of Study

Research indicates that women occupy a very small percentage of public school superintendencies. Yet it is not known how many of these positions are held by those involved in a mentoring relationship. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to gather descriptive data on female and male superintendents involved in a mentoring relationship and to examine the perceived helpfulness of career and psychosocial mentoring functions as provided by their mentors in regards to career advancement.

Delimitations of the Study

This study has the following delimitations:

1. This study is delimited to practicing public school superintendents from the Southeastern states of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama and Mississippi.
2. This study is delimited to those superintendents who have been involved in same gender and cross gender mentoring relationships.

3. This study is examines the helpfulness of career and psychosocial mentoring functions from the perspective of the protege.

Research Questions

This study poses the following research the question:

1. How do male and female superintendents rate same-gender versus cross gender mentors' helpfulness on the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument?

Hypotheses

This study poses the following research the hypotheses:

1. Male superintendents will rate same-gender mentors' helpfulness higher than cross-gender mentor's helpfulness on career and psychosocial mentoring functions.
2. Female superintendents will rate cross-gender mentors' helpfulness higher than same-gender mentors' helpfulness on career functions, but will rate same-gender mentors' helpfulness higher than cross-gender mentors' helpfulness on career and psychosocial mentoring functions.

Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions are provided:

1. Career advancement- The term refers to the professional ability to move ahead or promote beyond one's beginning occupational status.
2. African-American- An American of African ancestry (Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 1996).
3. Career Functions- Aspects of a mentoring relationship which enhance career advancement (Kram, 1985). Career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching and protection, and challenging assignments.
4. Caucasian- An American of European, white ancestry (Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 1996).
5. Coaching- A senior person shares knowledge, advice, feedback and understanding of office politics (Kram, 1985).
6. Counseling- A senior person who serves as a sounding board for an individual's self-exploration, offers person experience as an alternative perspective, and helps another person resolve problems through feedback and active listening (Kram, 1985).

7. Educational Administration- The term refers to the planning, organizing, directing and managing of human resources and subject matter, in an educational institution (Mitzel, 1982).
8. Educational Administrator- The term refers to the position of authority located within school districts or schools and is involved in managing and organizing local educational programs. Administrators are professional certified staff (South Carolina Department of Education, 2000).
9. Ethnicity- The term refers to racial/ethnic categories used to designate a person having origins from a particular place (South Carolina Department of Education, 2000).
10. Friendship- A senior person who engages in a social interaction with another person that results in mutual liking, understanding and enjoyable, informal exchanges about work and outside experiences (Kram, 1985).
11. Mentor- The term refers to a person, usually older and more experienced, who is able and willing to help a protegé get where he/she wants to go (Daloz, 1999).
12. Mentoring relationship- A union of on-going interaction and two way communication between one individual who serves as a mentor and another who

receives the offered services (Lasher, 1986 as cited in Wesley, 1997).

13. Protege - The term refers to a novice professional receiving assistance and support from a mentor.

14. Psychosocial Functions- Aspects of a mentoring relationship which enhance an individuals' sense of competence, identity and effectiveness in a professional role (Kram, 1985). The psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship. These psychosocial functions enhance the overall competence of the developing professional.

15. Upper-Level Administrator- The term refers to a position of authority located within school districts or schools and is involved in duties of managing and organizing local educationa
l programs. Upper level administrators, for the purpose of this study, include only school principals, district, county and area assistant superintendents and district, county and area superintendents.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A three-tier discussion is presented examining the concept of mentoring, how the mentor/protegé relationship impacts professional development and career advancement as well as the importance of mentoring in educational administration, particularly when accessing the superintendency.

What is mentoring?

Historical Background

The original mentor appears in the legend of *The Odyssey*. According to the story, King Odysseus entrusts his son, Telemakhos to Athena, Goddess of wisdom, while completing his life's work. It is in a mentor's form that Athena speaks at critical times and guides young Telemakhos in search of a reunion with his father. Athena's role as mentor is instructive, helping Telemakhos achieve his manhood and confirming his identity in an adult world while the father completes his life's work. For Telemakhos, his mentor was a guide providing insight, understanding and good advice when needed (Wikman and Sjodin, 1997).

Mentors have been around for ages and have taken place under various forms of apprentice/master craftsman in the trades, artist/maestro in the arts, and student/teacher in the academics (Wesley, 1997). As cited in Daloz (1999)

> The mentor is concerned with transmission of wisdom. How then, do mentors transmit wisdom? Most often, it seems they take us on a journey. In this aspect of their work, mentors are guides. They lead us along the journey of our lives. We entrust them because they have been there before. They embody our hopes, cast light on our way ahead, interpret arcane signs, warn us of lurking dangers, and point out unexpected delights along the way. There is certain luminosity about them, and they often pose as magicians in tales of transformation, for magic is a work given to what we cannot see. As teachers of adults, we have much to learn from the mythology of the mentor (p. 18).

Among some of the numerous mentoring-like relationships recorded throughout history are: civic leaders Malcolm X - Louis Farrakhan and Richard Nixon - George Bush; artists Tina Turner - Mick Jagger and Mariah Carey - Cristina Aguilera; philosophers Socrates -Plato and

Aristotle; and, writers Maya Angelou - Oprah Winfrey (Peer Resources, 2000).

Mentoring Defined

Mentoring has been defined in many ways by researchers. Research indicates the concept of teacher, advisor, counselor, role model, coach, guide and sponsor have been used to describe significant persons who have assisted in the professional growth, development and maturity of a protégé'.

Colwell (1998) refers to the concept of mentoring as a valuable educational tool. He cites the following definition by Anderson and Shannon (1998)

> Mentoring is a nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development. Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and protegé (p. 40).

Kowalski (1999) refers to mentoring as the process of helping aspiring or relatively inexperienced professionals

to advance professionally by sharpening their effectiveness and productivity. Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) define mentoring in educational administration as a chemistry rather than anything else.

Kaye and Jacobson (1995) suggest that a mentor guides a protegé through a complex process of developing their organizational and career savvy. Skrtic (1985) conceptualized the mentor as

> a person who is usually older, and influential, and who through a close personal relationship, guides, advises, takes a personal interest in and provides emotional support beyond ordinary work-related responsibilities to a less experienced, younger person with regard to his or her career or professional development (p. 27).

Sherfield, Williamson, and McCandrew (1997) suggest that when trying to imagine what a mentor is, it might be helpful to explore what a mentor is not. In this case,

> a mentor is not an idol or god to be revered. The person should be someone with whom you can trust. When you become successful, you will be a professional peer to this individual if your career follows the same course. A mentor does

not necessarily have to be a great deal older than you. People can be mentors at any age p. 254).

Rowley (1999) views a mentor as a person who communicates their belief that another person is capable of transcending present challenges and of accomplishing great things in the future. The mentor capitalizes on opportunities to affirm the human potential of their protegé and shares their own struggles and frustrations and how they overcame them.

For clarity throughout this study, an effective mentor welcomes the protegé into the upper echelon world, shares knowledge, offers criticism, sponsors the developing professional in key positions and most importantly acts as a professional reference in providing recommendations.

Categories of Mentoring

The two broad categories associated with mentoring are formal and informal. According to Bennis (1995), mentoring should be a formal system, not simply a let it happen accident. Walker (1985) found that successful mentoring programs do not happen by chance. They are planned thoroughly, supported by an organized entity whether it is a district, group of districts, or state board.

Dr. Dorothy Harnish, Dean of Instruction and Student Services at Wytheville Community College launched a series of case studies involving formal peer mentoring relationships involving mentor/protegé faculty teams desiring assistance in developing alternative teaching materials and methods. Within her study, she notes that formal peer mentoring projects are distinguished from informal, naturally occurring ones by the intentionality. Further, she recognizes the importance of the mutual involvement of mentors and proteges in identifying project goals.

Harnish (1995) finds,

> Both mentor and protegé may grow as a result of new insights into their own behavior. In addition to individual growth at the personal and professional levels, teaching practices can be expected to change as a result of working closely with another professional who approaches problems differently and can suggest or even model alternatives to existing practice. Opportunities to discuss with a peer teaching philosophies and methodologies, assumptions about learning styles and teaching effectiveness, and the many decisions that confront teaching faculty daily can result in both

instructional and curricular change and improvement. Mentoring is a process and structure to bring this about (p.10).

Loeb (1995) asserts formal mentoring programs which pair younger managers with more seasoned mentors and offer different sets of talents and experiences are growing in popularity. Created just a few years ago to smooth the way for women and minority managers entering the corporate world, they are now typically open to all and are used by companies such as Avon, MTV, and Xerox. General Electric has 1,000 such mentor-protégé pairings.

Further, Loeb notes

> that companies figure formal mentoring is a low-cost way to transfer skills and hold on to the people they want to keep. At a time when your employer isn't offering many clear moves up, mentoring can help you learn about career building lateral shifts and where to pick up new skills that will enhance your employability (p. 214).

According to Kaye and Jacobson (1995), formal mentoring programs often experience a lack of mentors, limited identified mentors of the same gender and the ability to tap into the subtle, but essential, personal

chemistry found in successful informal mentoring relationships.

A case study by Stephen Gibb (1999) suggests a systematic approach to establishing learning partnerships is necessary when introducing veteran and novice employees. Although the functions of formal mentoring may vary, effective formal mentoring programs ensure the following:

1. Better induction and socialization
2. Complement formal learning processes (e.g. professional development)
3. Improved performance (e.g. grooming for promotion)
4. Realize potential (e.g. equal opportunities. (p. 1058)

Gibb (1999) notes that organizational mentoring programs gained widespread acclaim two decades ago as a way to grow high-potential employees and to offer women and minorities advantages generally reserved for the old boys network. Dr. Linda Phillips-Jones of The Mentoring group notes that effective formalized organizational mentoring programs take place when:

1. you have support from top officials and the target audience;

2. you and your task force have time and resources to spend;
3. the organizational climate is healthy
4. people have expressed interest in developing and learning;
5. you have some specific goals in mind for the mentoring effort;
6. mentors and mentees have time to meet and work on development activities together (even if most of their exchanges will be by telephone); and
7. some informal mentoring is already happening, and people speak well of it (www.mentoringgroup.com)

Although mentoring is being used in a variety of settings to support the development of individuals, The National Mentoring Network (2000) offer a ten step framework which is common to all successful mentoring programs:

Step One, establish the aims and objectives of the program. It is important that objectives are established from the outset. What does the organization seek to gain by the use of mentoring? How do we think mentoring can help individuals?

Step two, identify the target group. It is important to remember that mentoring is not a "universal remedy" to resolve all problems. Mentoring may work with some and not others. Mentoring only works effectively with willing partners.

Step three, recruit mentors. This is not always easy. Not everyone wants to be a mentor and not everyone is appropriate. Mentors should be assessed for their suitability. Put procedures in place to police check mentors when dealings with children and other vulnerable groups.

Step four, induct or train participants. All programs should have basic preparatory sessions in place. These should include the aims of the program, information on the organization and protégé' group, review of the mentor's roles and skills as well as an outline of the support available. In some cases the problems encountered by the client group may be quite complex and the depth of training should reflect this.

Step five, prepare the individuals to be mentored. Protégé's should understand what the relationship can and cannot do for them. Their briefing should include the aims of the program, the benefits to them, their responsibilities, the role of the mentor and other support available to them.

Step six, set targets, standards or goals. It is important for all pairings to establish a rapport, but it is equally important to have a focus for the relationship. Realistic goals need to be agreed at the outset by all parties that take into account the needs of the client. They could be a number of short term but achievable goals.

Step seven, establish administrative support procedures. The structure of this will depend on the type of organization managing the program. It is sensible to have a fixed point for the cancellation of and rearrangement of meetings and a point of reference for the parties involved.

Step eight, provide feedback and ongoing support. Mentors may not always receive adequate feedback from the person they mentor and will benefit from a third party involvement. If mentors are going to be successful, they need to be given the confidence that they can contact someone to discuss issues. Often just to be told that they

are doing a good job and that their influence is having a beneficial effect is reassuring. Networking with other mentors is a useful way of sharing practice and offering support.

Step nine, monitor progress. It is important to have a third party monitoring the relationship as well as the participants involved. Monitoring will provide information on progress being made and can be useful in resolving problems or conflicts at an early stage.

Step ten, evaluate. Everyone knows mentoring works- but can we prove it? Evaluation is important for the program. It provides information that can be used to make the program more effective in the future, gives evidence of outcomes and the value of mentoring and effectiveness of the structure as much as the relationship itself.

Barnett (1995) expounded upon the concept and moved the application of mentoring into the world of educational administration training by viewing mentoring as a process in which mentors and proteges move through several stages, phases and levels of professional development.

Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1978), suggested that women who aspire to career advancement in any profession need more than a simple role model to follow; they need a system of mentors and sponsors in order to assure career

development. Mentoring has been used by men as informal support systems for centuries; in education it is known as the good old boy system. According to Ehrich (1995) there are several sources of mentorship available to women: the principal, senior administrators, and nomination to serve on various committees, commissions or boards.

In a 1983 study (as cited in Rowley, 1989), Andruskiw found that females continue to face barriers in educational administration career advancement. The study indicated that women are more often promoted to staff positions or assistant positions than to top-level positions; lack internal support systems and mentors encouraging their advancement; frequently have their careers interrupted to raise children; have not always obtained the prerequisite experiences for top-level position; have spent a longer time in the ranks before advancing to higher positions; and have been required to prove themselves in more demanding ways before being promoted.

In contrast, Andruskiw (1989) indicates that men move more quickly up the administrative ladder, gain a wider array of administrative skills in a shorter period of time, have fewer career interruptions, and are not necessarily required to prove themselves as they are often promoted for

their potential rather than for their accomplishments. In agreement, McNeer (1983) states that

> Although mentoring will not open the way to an administrative career for a woman who lacks appropriate skills and background, there are women of each academic campus with the skills and abilities for leadership. One critical factor in the development of this administrative potential is the challenge and support of a mentor. (p.14)

The basic distinction between formal and informal mentorships lies in the formation of the relationship. Informal mentorships are not managed, structured, nor formally recognized by the organization. Traditionally, they are spontaneous relationships that occur without external involvement from the organization. In contrast, formal mentorships are programs that are managed and sanctioned by the organization (Choa and Walz, 1992.)

Informal mentoring in educational administration is characterized as a chemistry rather than anything else (Pigford and Tonnsen, 1993). Witmer (1995) refers to the informal mentoring relationship as being voluntary and established in the same way as a friendship. Crabb (1997) suggests that informal mentoring will continue to occur regardless of relations and stipulations.

According to Pigford and Tonnsen (1993), mentors serve a variety of functions in educational administration to include providing support, feedback and honest appraisal. They advise of potential job opportunities, serve as role models and introduce the protegé to other individuals directly linked to professional career advancement.

University Professor Barbara Jackson noted those who have broken the glass ceiling, particularly minorities, share common characteristics. They:

1. Are well educated and came up through the ranks
2. Do not fear power;
3. Believe they can influence a child's life and make a difference;
4. Are politically savvy; and
5. Have a network of support and prior leadership experience (p. 2).

Loeb (1995) stated, "Those who seek mentoring will rule the great expanse under heaven." Adviser, Teacher, Role-Model, Friend (2000), published by the National Academy of Sciences suggests that the primary motivation to become a mentor revolves around the natural desire to share knowledge and experience.

McLaughlin (1997) states mentoring takes place at all levels. New staff members need a mentor from the day they

begin work. It is important that someone show them the ropes. It is helpful for new employees to know where they can turn for advice, encouragement, and crucial one-on-one training and instruction.

One-on-one mentoring provides medium to long-term support that maximizes an individual's potential and enhances their performance. Meeting at regular intervals, the mentor helps the protégé' to understand the impact of their current behavior and make concrete plans for improving their skills and actions. While the agenda is primarily led by the protegé, the mentor will notice patterns and blocks to learning and challenge or inquire about these. An effective mentoring relationship complements other development and training opportunities.

Within informal mentoring partnerships, individuals enter a confidential relationship that is dedicated entirely to their effectiveness and development. The mentor is responsive to their unique qualities and the specific context within which they work.

However, Malone (2001) argues that mentorships are often ad hoc relationships, lacking any type of systematic implementation. Part of the problem is that mentoring and internships lack a theoretical base that can allow for the

institutionalized support of the mentor/protegé relationship.

The Mentoring Corporation (2001) maintains that informal mentoring offers individuals the opportunity to increase personal and professional effectiveness; manage stress and pressure more effectively; develop clarity about career aspirations and work effectively towards these; be more skillful in inter-personal relationships; develop improved learning skills, particularly the ability to learn from experience; work well with increased levels of complexity and uncertainty; be influential in an organization's political environment; and, operate with increased self confidence.

Further, the organization asserts a specific process for one-on-one mentoring that includes routine meetings with the mentor on an individually tailored basis, the creation of a mentoring action plan, access to other specialist mentors, feedback processes, as well as periodic evaluations of progress with written evaluations by the mentor (The Center for Mentoring, 2000).

With regards to both informal and formal approaches to mentoring, a recent emphasis on school reform has been the assessment of the ways in which people are prepared for professional educational roles. The concept of corporate

mentoring in professional education has become extremely popular. The use of mentors and the principles of corporate mentoring has become so widespread that it is viewed as a kind of panacea for dealing with many existing limitations on educational professional roles. However, whether mentoring occurs informally or within a structured context, research has shown the concept of mentoring may be seen as an effective strategy in assisting female administrators to move into leadership roles more smoothly (Daresh and Playko, 1990).

The Mentoring Relationship

Random House (1997) defines a relationship as the friendship, contact, and communications that exist between people, countries, etc. Basic to the mentoring relationship is a clear understanding that the mentor and protegé constitute a team. Neither can operate effectively without a thorough knowledge of and support for the other's role. Effective mentoring relationships require strong mentors and strong proteges who willingly assume leadership roles.

Successful mentoring relationships provide benefits to both the protegé and the mentor. Consequently, the question of why mentoring programs are important can best

be answered by looking at the reported benefits to the parties involved. Bova and Phillips (1984) state that the concept of mentoring has proven to be important in the development of professionals. From their study pertaining to the types of things proteges learn from their mentors, the following list of benefits was derived:

1. Risk taking behaviors
2. Communication skills
3. Survival in the organization
4. Skills of the profession
5. Respect for people
6. Setting high standards and not compromising them
7. Being a good listener
8. Getting along with all kinds of people
9. Leadership qualities
10. What it means to be a professional (p. 18)

It is clear from these findings that mentoring programs provide structure and support in helping school leaders learn to lead. In a successful program, mentoring promotes high levels of instructional skills as well as feelings of confidence in the protegé.

Individuals who have been in a mentoring relationship benefit from increased opportunities for professional advancement (Bey and Holmes, 1990; Collins, 1983; Daresh &

Playko, 1990; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993). Studies have shown how proteges gain entry into upper level echelons of profession, become more equipped to meet high standards of professionalism, navigate more effectively in a profession and "bask in reflected glory of mentor's position, power and stature (Pigford and Tonnsn, 1993). Additionally, proteges develop improved professional self-concepts and self-awareness because mentors: evaluate the proteges' strengths and weaknesses; build proteges' self confidence, become the proteges' sounding board and provide proteges with opportunities for visibility and exposure in the professional arena (George and Kummerow, 1981.)

There are particular benefits of mentoring for women and minorities. Traditionally both women and minorities have experienced difficulties in accessing informal channels of communication and social networks. According to The National Academy of Sciences (1997), women enter the medical and medical sciences professions on the periphery of a tightly woven, expansive network that men enjoy through sheer numbers and tradition. Within this informal network, men pass along a great deal of vital information. Mentoring, therefore, becomes an important strategy for improving the professional status of women and minorities in the institution.

It is essential for the mentor and protegé to delineate their respective roles. A protegé is available and interested in learning all that the mentor has to offer. According to Wickman (1997), there are four traits common to all proteges in successful mentoring relationships. A successful protegé respects the mentor's time; takes action on information; shows respect for the mentor's effort to open doors. And passes on the gift of mentoring by taking on a protegé. A mentor is asked to provide support, feedback and honest appraisal; advise of potential job opportunities; serve as role models; and, introduce the protegé to other individuals directly linked to professional career advancement (Pigford and Tonnsen (1993).

According to the National Academy of Sciences (1997), the mentor must serve as a role model through both words and actions. The mentor's presence provides a personal window for the protegé in visualizing a possible future. In addition, ethical and professional behavior along with the mentor's attitude towards the profession, leave a strong impression on the protegé.

According to McNeer (1983), there are two differences between corporate and educational institutions in relation to mentoring relationships and the career advancement.

First, educational administrators usually move from one institution to another as they rise through the ranks, while corporate executives usually remain in the same company. This limits the possibilities for mentoring relationships in academia where one does not remain in close proximity to former mentors. However, there is a greater opportunity for educational administrators to develop more than one mentoring relationship within their careers.

Like any other human relationship, the mentoring relationship can have both negative and positive consequences. The mentoring relationship will not be helpful if the mentor lacks the skills and insight to be helpful, is not interested in helping another person, or is inaccessible to the protegé. The relationship may even have negative consequences if the mentor exploits the protegé, uses the work of the protegé only for personal benefit, or takes credit for the work of the protegé. The relationship may also have negative consequences if the mentor is threatened by the success of the protegé, undermines the confidence of the protegé, has difficulty in allowing the protegé to capitalize on his/her unique interests and talents, or has difficulty in encouraging the protegé to become more independent.

In order to differentiate what a mentor does for a protegé in behavioral terms, corporate managerial studies must be reviewed.

Godshalk and Sosik,(2000) note that organizations recognize the benefits associated with mentoring relationships. These benefits include effective socialization of young employees, promotions and compensation, career mobility, career satisfaction, career commitment, enhanced productivity, job satisfaction and reduced turnover intentions. However, research has shown not all mentors are effective (Daresh and Playko, 1990; Rowley, 1999; Scandura, 1998; Wickman & Sjodin, 1997).

According to Daresh and Playko (1990), not all administrators are capable of serving as mentors. Having the capacity to serve in this way has virtually nothing to do with a person's success or effectiveness as a practicing administrator. Daresh and Playko (1990) found that the most important characteristics for effective mentors are the following:

1. Mentors need to be able to ask the right questions of proteges, and not just provide the "right" answers all the time.
2. Mentors must accept "another way of doing things," and avoid the temptation to tell

proteges that the "right way" to do something is "the way I used to do it."

3. Mentors should express the desire to see people go beyond their present levels of performance, even if it might mean that they are able to do some things better than the mentors might attempt to do the same things.
4. Mentors must model the principle of continuous learning and reflection (p.45.)

As indicated by Carr-Ruffino(1993), self-presentation, positioning, and connecting are vital aspects of career advancement. These qualities exceed the technical requirements regarding promotability and are a primary concern in the mentor-protegé relationship. Carr-Ruffino (1993), offers that mentors

1. Teach, advise, counsel, coach, guide and sponsor
2. Give insights into the business
3. Serve as a sounding board for decision-making
4. Be a constructive critic
5. Provide necessary information for career advancement

6. Show how to move effectively through the system
7. Help cut through red tape at times
8. Teach the political ropes and introduce you to the right people
9. Suggest you as a likely candidate when appropriate
10. to provide an important signal to other people that you have his or her backing, helping you with an aura of power and upward mobility (p. 271).

Goldshalk and Sosik (2000) conducted a comparison study regarding the quality of mentoring relationships among adult novice employees and managers in terms of psychosocial support received, career development, and perceived mentoring effectiveness. The findings indicate that mentors may be direct supervisors of proteges, and that these relationships may not be formally sanctioned through the organization's human resource programs. Therefore, in order to understand informal mentoring relationships, developmental training must be provided. As such, organizations should train those in offering mentoring functions (i.e., psychosocial support and career development), in responding to proteges on receipt of these

functions, and in setting expectations between the protegé and mentor.

Valverde (1980) studied the mentor-protegé process by interviewing six sponsors and found four basic functions are provided: exposure, advice, protection and sanction. The sponsor helps move the aspirant from the classroom by providing administrative experience, access to other district administrators, and career guidance. Collins (1983) developed a similar list of 16 mentoring behaviors from responses by 400 women to an open-ended questionnaire.

Kram(1983) divides the functions of mentors in two categories, career and psychosocial. Career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching and protection, and challenging assignments. The psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship. These psychosocial functions enhance the overall competence of the developing professional.

Career Functions

Teaching: Several authors describe the mentor as teacher. Serving in this capacity, Levinson (1978) described the mentor as one who helps the protegé enhance his/her technical skills and intellectual development. Bey and Holmes (1990) described the mentor as one who provides

intentional nurturing, insightful, supportive personal and professional development. Phillips (1977) found common mentoring activities were "teaching proteges about their work, giving them skills, acquainting them with office politics, reviewing and critiquing their efforts, and other kinds of instructional help" (p. 84).

Zey (1984) asserts,

> "Through the role of teacher, the mentor imparts various organizational skills to the protegé, instructs the protegé in the power and political framework of the organization-- perhaps divulging inside information and gives the protegé tips on corporate comportment and social grace" (p. 7).

Sponsoring: The Woodlands Group (1980) made a differentiation between a sponsor and a mentor. The group stated sponsors get protegé names onto promotion lists; get proteges assigned to task forces and called into meetings; mention proteges with potential for special or existing openings; apply pressure to get proteges considered and/or placed; advise proteges on how to get desired assignments and positions; make recommendations for their proteges (p. 919). The National Academy for Sciences (1997) uphold that good mentors can make crucial contributions to a protegé's

career in helping to focus career goals and secure the nest position.

Valverde (1980) studied the mentor-protegé process in the educational setting by interviewing six sponsoring teachers and found sponsorship to be one of four basic functions necessary for a successful mentoring relationship. The sponsor helps move the aspirant from the classroom by providing administrative experience, access to other district administrators and career guidance.

Coaching: This function helps a protegé understand the political dynamics of an organization while helping to achieve his or her potential. According to Kubesh (1996), advice, survival skills, and learning the ropes is a most important career function for an aspiring protegé. Successful mentors spend time teaching and coaching proteges within an organization, treat proteges as individuals with unique abilities and aspirations as well as help proteges develop strength to endure organizational challenges

Exposure: This functions is another beneficial dynamic of an effective mentoring relationship. Phillips (1977) cited Loring and Wells, who said "Successful people are exciting to be around . With vibrant energy, they inspire those around them to think with renewed vigor. Their

vitality encourages others to want to do more and stretch for new accomplishments."

Visibility: This function gives proteges an opportunity to demonstrate their skills. As such, a mentor is well respected among other professional peers and has professional contacts. A good mentor gives the protegé an opportunity to become visible and demonstrate what they can do. Armendariz-Housen (1995) maintained that visibility and contact with other individuals in the administrative profession is important for career advancement.

Challenging assignments: Once more, this function gives protégés an opportunity to demonstrate their skills. Phillips (1977) reported how mentors gave their proteges opportunities to "showcase their skills." "They assign them responsibilities, ready or not, usually encouraging and guiding them in the process" (p. 84).

Protection: As a protector the mentor provides support in difficult situations, supporting the protegé if he or she is being unfairly criticized, or acting as a buffer when necessary. This function involves the mentor's interference when necessary and appropriate. Kanter (1977) describes mentors as "godfathers" or "rabbis" who stand up for proteges and protect them during times of controversy.

Psychosocial

Role modeling: A review of the literature indicates that role modeling is one of the more important psychosocial functions (Gupton and Slick, 1996; Schmidt and Wolfe, 1980; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993). In view of this, Levinson (1976) said "Through his own virtues, achievements and way of living, the mentor may be an exemplar that the protegé can admire and seek to emulate" (p. 97). Similarly, The National Academy of Sciences suggests that a good mentor is a good role model, through both word and action. In essence, who the mentor is and what the mentor does offers the protegé insight of a future career path.

Covey (1990) suggests a sequence of character, relations, and logic, are necessary for effective mentoring. A strong character builds credibility and provides a foundation for role modeling inherent in mentoring relationships. Additionally, Godshalk & Sosik (2000) reported a mentor who demonstrates the characteristics of trustworthiness, respect, and admirability as a role model may enhance the ability of his or her protegé to assess and undertake calculated risks to advance their careers.

Acceptance and Confirmation/Encouragement: Several authors have cited acceptance-and- confirmation and

encouragement to be a most important element of effective mentoring relationships (Bey & Holmes, 1990; Clark, 1995; Pavan, 1986: Scandura, 1998).

Phillips (1977) suggests that encouragement is the extent to which one feels up to the tasks of learning and living. Effective mentors provide direction for increased self-understanding, courage when things take a turn for the worse as well as hope, faith and connectedness. With encouragement, a mentor can affirm, challenge and inspire a protégé to be all that they can be.

Godshalk & Sosik (2000)suggest mentors promote protegé independence and critical thinking through intellectual stimulation and by attaching importance to human development through inspirational motivation.

Counseling: This function has been cited as an important aspect of the successful mentoring relationships (Levinson, 1978; Kram, 1983, 1985; Phillips, 1977; Sheey, 1981).

Phillips (1977) said, "Mentors often take on the role of a counselor for their proteges, helping them identify options, through listening to their problems and views, reflecting these thoughts back to their proteges, helping them identify options, and providing practical suggestions

and advice. Mentors help their proteges solve problems as well as define and redefine their goals" (p. 85).

Friendship: This function is observed in some mentoring relationships (Levinson 1976, 1978; Sheehy, 1981; Phillips, 1977; Walker, 1985). "Just as many mentors find that friendship in their relationships with their proteges often benefit from having their mentors as friends" (Phillips, 1977, (p. 87).

Pavan (1986) suggests that influence, charisma and friendship help to form a strong emotional bond between the mentor and the protegé. Further, Covey (1990, 1997) maintains an effective mentoring relationship suggests an emotional alignment between the mentor and protegé, understanding, caring, and genuineness.

The Mentoring Network (2000) notes that mentoring involves "many things - a positive role model, an adviser, an experienced friend. Somebody from outside a person's immediate circle taking a special interest who can make an enormous difference."

Matching Mentors and Proteges in Education

The pairing of the mentor and protegé is an important component of the mentoring process. Matching based on gender is discussed briefly in the literature. Hunt and Michael (1983) suggested that male/female pairing would

result in duos that might prove to be less effective. In formal mentoring programs, the mentor and protegé are paired by members of the administration. Literature suggests that a voluntary matching is more desirable.

Shelton (1991) determined mentoring relationships occurred more frequently between Caucasians who were between 40 and 49 years of age than between any other racial or age grouping in educational administration. In addition, those who were identified as mentors did not have formal training in the mentoring process, yet they were successful in providing valuable feedback to beginning principals.

Due to the lack of female administrators, it is highly unlikely for minorities and aspiring females to establish mentoring relationships with other minority women. Although having a mentor of the same race and gender is preferred, it is not necessary. The primary issue involves tapping the most available effective source in penetrating the barriers surrounding administrative positions. White men are in the best position to assist males as well as females and minorities in doing so (p. 28).

Adult Development and Mentoring

Contemporary issues surrounding the concept of mentoring derived from research that addressed adult development and life-span cycle studies. Psychoanalyst Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) created a theory of personality encompassing its unconscious as well as conscious aspects and showed how personality development in childhood influenced one's life in adulthood. Carl Jung (1875-1961), student and protegé of Freud, believed that fundamental adult development begins in one's early 40s. During the "noon of life" a person acquires a clearer and fuller identity of his own and becomes better able to utilize his/her inner resources and pursue his/her own aims. He suggested that life's painful transitions and recurrent setbacks accompany ones self-renewal and is necessary for growth and maturity (Levinson, 1985).

Psychologist, Erik Erikson (1968) suggested that development is a lifelong process, from conception until death. He believed that individuals go through eight stages, the first in infancy and the last in old age. However, at each stage there is a crisis that we must deal with. Erikson theorized stages 3-6 within the adult life cycle to be significant developmental stages as they

provide a an inner clarity for psychosocial purpose and personal fulfillment.

In The Season of a Man's Life (1985), author and Yale Psychologist Daniel J. Levinson along with Darrow, Klein, M. Levinson and McKee present a comprehensive theory of adult development. Through a series of interviews with men and women, Levinson proposed a theory based on a series of stages that adults go through as they develop. At the center of his theory is the life structure, the underlying pattern of an individual's life at any particular time. Levinson's four "seasonal cycles" include preadulthood (ages 17-22), early adulthood (ages 22-28), middle adulthood (ages 28-33), and late adulthood (ages 33-40).

The pre-adulthood, early-adulthood and middle-adulthood periods form the novice stage in which four essential sets of tasks contribute to the stability of one's adult life: 1) forming and modifying a dream, 2) forming and modifying an occupation, 3) forming love, marriage, family relationships and 4) forming mentoring relationships. During the novice stage the mentor assists the protegé in the following way

> The good mentor is an admixture of good father and good friend. (A bad mentor of which there are many, combines the worst features of father and

> friend.) A "good enough" mentor is a transitional figure who invites and welcomes a young man into the adult world. He serves a guide, teacher and sponsor. He represents skill, knowledge, virtue, accomplishment—the superior qualities a young man hopes someday to acquire. He gives his blessing to the novice and his dream. And yet, with all this superiority, he conveys his promise that in time they will be peers. The protegé has the hope that soon he will be able to join or even surpass his mentor in the work they both value (p. 334).

The mentor was considered to be a model professional who provided counsel and moral support. He offered the protegé necessary attention, information and encouragement within the organization. Levinson's theory was not developed with educators in mind, but certainly is applicable to the educational profession.

Gail Sheehy wrote about female and male developmental stages in her books Passages (1976) and New Passages (1995). Passages helped to popularize the idea that adulthood continues to proceed in stages of development throughout the life cycle. Unlike childhood stages, the

stages of adult life are not characterized by physical growth, but by psychological and social growth.

In New Passages, Sheehy discerns that adulthood is broken into three phases: 1) provisional adulthood (ages 18-30), 2) first adulthood (ages 30-45) and 3) second adulthood (ages 45-85). The author notes that each stage

> presents its own struggles and begs for a new dream. The ages we enter and leave each period will vary; it is the very presence and possibilities of these three different territories of the adult life cycle that are important. It is likely that we will share these three lives with different partners of journey through one or more of them alone. Young men are likely to have two marriages. Serial families will be the norm. A third partner, to share the mellow years after 55, is also increasing common for a man, but he often doesn't marry her. And, all along, we have new opportunities for development (p.9).

Throughout the previous discussion, mentoring has been a central concept in the adult development of men and women. For that reason, in order for individuals to mature psychologically, intellectually and spiritually it is

important for them to find a mentor (Levinson, 1985; Sheehy, 1995; Erikson, 1963).

Knowles (1978) summarized five basic principles of adult learning theory.

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy; therefore, these are the appropriate starting points for organizing adult learning activities.

2. Adult orientation to learning is life centered; therefore, to appropriate units for organizing adult learning are life situations, not subjects.

3. Experience is the richest resource of adult learning; therefore, the best methodology of adult education is the analysis of experience.

4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing; therefore, the role of the teacher of adults is a process of mutual inquiry, rather than to transmit knowledge to adults and evaluate his/her conformity to information.

5. Individual differences among people increase with age; therefore, adult education must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, and place of learning. (p. 11)

Career Advancement and Mentoring

Mentoring has received considerable attention in organizational literature in the United States over the past two decades, primarily because of its linkage to both job and career success (Peluchette and Jeanquart 2000). As with adult development, the role of the mentor has become a significant factor in career development (Enomoto, 2000; Stevenson, 1997; Peluchette, Jeanquart 2000).

Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) initiated a longitudinal study that investigated 430 professors with their mentors at different stages of their careers. Results indicated that career tasks were completed within three stages throughout the life cycle: 1) the early career stage, 2) middle career stage, and 3) late career stage. As well, the authors discovered the needs for mentoring may change over the course of one's career thereby requiring different sources of mentors at different career stages.

During the early stage, professionals are entering their career with mentors established during their apprentice training. These mentors may be within or outside the organization. Those entering their career without an established mentor in the profession attempt to cultivate such a relationship in an effort to gain recognition and mobility.

At the middle career stage, professionals are usually in their 30s and mid 40s. During this stage, organizations begin to place pressure on the professional to participate in activities that benefit the organization directly and not the profession itself. Age and tenure affects the professionals' response to the pressure. Often, the older professional adjusts their aspirations and accepts the realities of the bureaucracy; whereas others are likely to look for mentors directly involved within the organization.

At the late career stage, professionals are stable in their careers and no longer seek mentors, but actually become mentors themselves. However, those professionals wishing to cultivate mentoring relationships will do so within the organization.

Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) state,

> For professionals, the results provide important information about the implications of different mentoring sources for their success at various stages of their career. Such information allows professionals to maximize career success by cultivating the most appropriate mentoring relationships at given points in their careers. The findings indicate, from professionals, the value of establishing close relationships with

> respected individuals outside the boundaries of the organization–both in the profession and outside the workplace (p. 559).

According to Witmer (1995), it is a known fact that mentors play a significant role in the career development of their protegé in becoming chief executives. However, finding a mentor is most challenging. Mentors normally choose whom they will mentor or young men will actively seek out someone to mentor them. Women are not in such a position as they begin their careers in education administration later in life and are often times older than their mentor.

Why is Mentoring important in Education Administration?

Pavan (1986) indicates that a primary reason for the low numbers of females and minorities in educational leadership are the lack of mentors and sponsors. It is generally assumed that men have mentors.

The changing racial and ethnic makeup of society has had a profound impact on the demands for female and minority representation in the field of public education administration. Russel and Wright (1992) report that despite informal and formal attempts to confront and conquer barriers to women in public service, efforts will

remain ineffective until an overall understanding is gained of the professional experiences of minority and females in the field of education administration.

Skrla (2000) indicates that since the mid-1970s, researchers have been intrigued with the issue of underrepresentation of women in educational administration. Further, over the last 20 years, gender has emerged as a significant focus in research on school leadership.

Continued underrepresentation of women in administrative leadership positions can be linked to the fact that women often lack mentors or sponsors who can be helpful in preparation for and induction to established networks that promote career advancement (Phillips, 1977).

"Times have changed, but many of the barriers confronting women have not (Pigford and Tonnsen, 1993, p. 4.) Despite legislative mandates, needs of society and the repleted numbers of women in teaching procession, the prevailing attitude that 'women teach children; men run schools' is prevalent in our society."

Dardaine-Ragguet (1994) reports existence of a "clear pattern of discrimination aimed at females with appropriate credentials who are not selected for administrative positions because employers' negative attitudes towards women, sex-role stereotypes and the

absence of female administrators who can serve as advocates and mentors" for aspiring female administrators. The gender gap is perpetuated in the sex discrimination that occurs in the hiring practices of the organization.

Seay and Chance (1995) revealed recent changes in concerning women in educational administration. Their research of the 1960s, 1970s, and early 1980s concerning barriers to the advancement of women in administration cited that

> (a) more women than men lacked self-confidence; (b) fewer women than men aspired to administrative positions; (c) home and family responsibilities created barriers for women; (d) women were less likely than men to receive encouragement of sponsorship; (e) there was a pervasive bias against female administrators in patriarchal educational systems; (f) administrator programs were gender based; and (g) few women participated in an administrative preparation (p. 48).

Shakeshaft (1989) and Paddock (1980) claim that men began their careers in education with less commitment to teaching and move into administrative positions sooner than women (as cited in Ruhl-Smith and Shen, 1999). They are

mentored for administrative positions and assisted within the formal hierarchy to advance up the career ladder.

Recently, Kosmoski and Pollack (1998) found that beginning administrators experience negative physical effects during their first three years. In their study African Americans and females were most affected, becoming more controlled, more tense, more driven and more overwrought. However, those involved in informal and/or formal mentoring relationships experienced greater educational administrative success (Keeles, 1995; Tieman, 1993).

According to Oritz (1982) educational organizations do not try in an equitable way to prepare white men, women and minorities to become organizational leaders. Instead, they prepare "white males to administer and manage adults, women to instruct children and minorities to direct and contain other minorities." (p. 147).

According to Pigford and Tonnsen (1993), finding the "right" mentor is not always simple in task. Formal internships or mentorships are convenient ways to establish a mentoring relationship. However, they are not always available(p. 28).

Mentoring and the Superintendency

More women and female minorities are serving in superintendent positions than ever before. Although these groups continue to be underrepresented, establishing a mentoring relationship appears to be a significant factor in overcoming the barriers to obtaining the superintendency (Chapman, 1997). According to Konnert and Augenstein (1995), establishing mentoring relationships is a vital piece in obtaining access to the superintendency, particularly for women and minorities aspiring to the position. Female practicing superintendents must actively assist other women aspiring to the superintendency and serve as mentors (p. 234).

Chapman (1997) indicates that formal mentoring programs have been established in some states for the educational administrators interested in pursuing the position of superintendent. Further, he suggests this to be a positive step towards increasing competency levels of future superintendents. Ultimately, establishing formal mentoring relationships can help in recruiting highly qualified women and minority superintendents.

Typically, in the field of education administration, mentors are open influential, successful superintendents (Kowalski, 1993). According to Pigford and Tonnsen (1993), male mentors have more influential power in the educational

administration hierarchy; however, women mentors have a feminist perspective rooted in empathy, support and advice.

Daresh and Playko (1999) purport that mentoring has become a popular concept and can occur at the preservice, induction, or inservice phase. According to Konnert and Augenstein (1995), mentors sponsor their own protegé to seek out mentors. As for the superintendency, the socialization process begins long before the position begins and is never-ending. They must continue to seek knowledge, develop new skills and sharpen existing ones (Konnert and Augenstein, 1990).

Chapman (1997) indicates that many times beginning superintendents maintain those relationships with professional cohorts outside the district and often rely on them for support as mentors throughout their tenure as superintendent.

Grogan (1996) contends that true mentors sustain processional relationships with their protégé, even after the career goal of the superintendency, is attained. At this point, the mentor becomes a confidant, confessor and personal advisor. According to Grogan (2000), female aspirants to the superintendency strongly articulate the need for sponsors and the amount of visibility their company attracts. She promotes the power of the system and

notes that without proper sponsorship female applications for jobs such as the superintendency remain overlooked and disregarded (p. 71).

Opportunity rests on the framework of successful mentoring relationships. Mentoring relationships move proteges into upper-level educational administration positions more rapidly than women (Konnert and Augenstein, 1990.) According to Chapman (1997), during the early 1990s, a little more than half a sample of beginning superintendents indicated that they had mentors in their ascendancy to the position of superintendent. It was also reported in a 1992 study conducted by the American Association of School Administrators (as cited in Chapman, 1997), that successful female and minority superintendents were more likely to have mentors than non-minority males.

The purpose of mentoring is to provide assistance and support to novice educational administrators as they transition into the educational profession. The most effective mentoring relationships are those where mentor/protegé roles and expectations are clearly defined and understood. Mentors must have the right characteristics for the job. Zimpher and Rieger (1988) say that mentors have to be dedicated to the profession and willing to serve. This is why selection and training

thereof is so important. In this section mentor/protegé roles and responsibilities were discussed based on information found in the literature. These findings suggest that although the mentor serves many roles, his/her primary responsibility is to provide career oriented as well as affective assistance with professional needs. The literature also pointed to the fact that the mentor/protegé relationship has great potential for professional development whether established in a formal setting or informal setting. However, careful attention must be given to the characteristics of mentoring relationships as mentor/protegé matching has an impact on the fruition of successful mentoring relationships.

The establishment of mentoring relationships as they pertain to the field of education administration, can be rewarding for both the mentor and the protegé. While effective mentors serve as a valuable resource of information and exposure to the protegé, his/or her contribution has a significant impact on the field of education. In the future, mentors will be agents of change who will assist their colleagues in the communication processes that will lead to implementation of effective school site changes (George, 1989).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Sample

This study investigated eight district populations. The first sample consisted of male practicing superintendents from the southeastern United States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Florida who were involved in a same-gender mentoring relationship. The second sample consisted of female practicing superintendents from southeastern states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida who ere involved in a same-gender mentoring relationship. The third sample consisted of male practicing superintendents from the southeastern states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Florida who were involved in a cross-gender mentoring relationship. The fourth sample consisted of female practicing superintendents from the southeastern states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida who had been involved in a cross-gender mentoring relationship.

In county school districts that use the appointed or elected method in selecting superintendents, the first appointed and last elected superintendent was included in the study. The individuals were identified using current

superintendent directories acquired from individual state departments of education.

Data Collection

Data was collected during the 2000-2001 school year, recorded and analyzed by the researcher. The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument along with a proposal to conduct this study was submitted to The University of Southern Mississippi Human Subjects Review Board (HSRB). Following approval of the HSRB (see Appendix A), The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument, along with a cover letter explaining the study and insuring anonymity, and a pre-addressed, stamped envelope, were mailed to 200 randomly selected practicing superintendents in South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida (see Appendix B). The telephone number, email and address of the researcher were included.

The superintendents were asked to return the instrument and permission slip to the researcher within two weeks. Return of the survey was taken as informed consent for the researcher to use the data. The surveys were coded to assure anonymity.

All questionnaires were maintained in a secured filing cabinet and destroyed upon completion of the study. Findings were distributed to participants as requested.

Research Design and Instrumentation

A survey design was used for this study. The instrument is a two-part questionnaire developed by Dr. Carol Wesley, Ph.D. entitled The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument. Wesley (1996) noted that Kram's (1983) theoretical model of career and psychosocial mentoring functions served as the framework in development of the instrument. A copy of the letter granting permission to use the instrument is included in Appendix C.

The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument consists of 60 items and is separated into two sections. Section I poses 10 questions related mentor and protege age and gender. Section II, a mentoring profile, consists of 50 items pertaining to the perceived value of mentor's helpfulness regarding the career and psychosocial functions of career advancement.

Career functions are considered to be aspects of the mentoring relationship which enhance career advancement (Kram, 1985). Career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching and protection, and challenging assignments.

Psychosocial functions are considered to be aspects of a mentoring relationship which enhance an individuals' sense of competence, identity and effectiveness in a

professional role (Kram, 1985). The psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship.

The instrument was judged to have content validity. The content validity of the instrument is determined by "the degree to which a test measures that content that it was designed to measure" (Oosterhof, 1990, p. 12).

Additionally, the internal consistency reliability for The Career and Psychosocial Functions Instrument is .70. Internal consistency reliability "measures the degree of interrelationships between items on the same test and is based on the average correlation of items within a test" (Tindal, G. & Martson, D., 1990, p. 105). The internal consistency reliability coefficients for Section II, items 1-50, which pertain to career and psychosocial functions, indicate high alpha levels.

Analysis of Data

An analysis of variance test procedure was used for this study. A univariate F-test (ANOVA) compares two or more groups on a dependent variable to determine if significant differences exist between the groups (Stevens, 1990).

Ten dependent variables were divided into two separate groups, career functions and psychosocial functions. These

variables included the career functions of sponsorship, exposure and visibility, challenging assignments, coaching, office politics, protection and the psychosocial functions of role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship.

Career and psychosocial functions were divided into two groups of dependent variables. These variables included the career functions of sponsorship, exposure and visibility, challenging assignments, coaching, office politics and protection. The psychosocial functions included role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship.

The first and second hypotheses, "Male superintendents will rate same-gender mentors' helpfulness higher than cross-gender mentor's helpfulness on career and psychosocial mentoring functions," and "Female superintendents will rate cross-gender mentors' helpfulness higher than same-gender mentors' helpfulness on career functions, but will rate same-gender mentors' helpfulness higher than cross-gender mentors' helpfulness on career and psychosocial mentoring functions," were tested. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) could not be computed for differences existing between groups due to small sample size.

The observed means were computed and analyzed for the groups on the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Personal Computer Program (SPSS-PX). Tests were conducted on the campus of The University of Southern Mississippi.

All hypotheses were tested using multivariate analysis of variance or univariate F tests statistical techniques.

Data Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

Two hundred practicing superintendents from states located within the southeastern United States region including South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama and Mississippi were randomly selected as the population sample. Ninety-four questionnaires were returned. This represents a return rate of 47%. Fifty-two superintendents indicated they had not been mentored during their educational career.

Of the remaining forty-two instruments, three instruments were deemed non-usable due to non-completion. The data analysis was completed by using the remaining 39 instruments. This number represented 41.4% of the returned instruments. The superintendents consisted of a group of 19 male proteges and 20 female proteges. The ratio of male to female proteges was almost equal. The gender ratio of mentor to protege was skewed in the direction of male mentors. The mentors of the superintendents included a group of 32 males and seven females. The mentor/ protege groups that are represented included the following: 18 male proteges-male mentors, 1 female mentor/male protege, 6 female mentor/female proteges, and 14 male mentor/female

proteges. Table 1 presents the gender composition of mentors and proteges.

The mentors were composed of a group of 31 Caucasians (79.5%) and eight African Americans (20.5%). There were no practicing superintendent protege representatives of Native-American or Asian-American decent. The number of proteges from a specific ethnic group was overwhelmingly skewed in the direction of Caucasian proteges who hold numerical demographic superiority in the dominant culture. Table 2 presents the descriptive data on ethnic composition of the proteges.

Proteges identified the ethnicity of their mentors, which included 33 Caucasians (85.6%) and six African-Americans (15.4%). The number of mentors from a specific race/ethnic group was skewed in the direction of the Caucasian mentors, who hold the majority of upper level positions within the American public school education administration hierarchy. African-Americans were the only other race/ethnic group represented in this study. Table 3 presents the ethnic composition of the mentors.

Positions the superintendents mentors held when the mentoring relationship began ranged from the position of assistant principal to the position of superintendent. The number of mentors and the positions those mentors held when

Table 1
Data on Gender Composition of Mentors and Proteges
(N=39)

Gender of Mentors

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	32	82.1	82.1
Female	7	17.9	100.0

Gender of Proteges

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	19	48.7	48.7
Female	20	51.3	100.0

Table 2
Descriptive Data on Ethnic Composition of Proteges

(N=39)

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Caucasian	31	79.5	100.0
African-American	8	20.5	20.5

Table 3

Descriptive Data on Ethnic Composition of Mentors

(N=39)

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Caucasian	33	84.6	100.0
African-American	6	15.4	15.4

the mentoring relationship began, included the following: 2 assistant principals, 17 superintendents, 2 middle school superintendents, 2 junior high school principals, 4 high school principals, 5 assistant superintendents, 1 deputy superintendent, and 6 other upper-level administrative positions. Descriptive data on the superintendent mentors' position when the mentoring relationship began is presented in Table 4.

Positions the proteges held when the mentoring relationship began ranged from classroom teacher to superintendent. The number of superintendents and the position they held when the mentoring relationship began included the following: 8 teachers, 5 assistant principals, 1 elementary school principal, 2 middle school principals, 1 junior high school principal, 1 high school principal, 6 assistant superintendents, 2 deputy superintendents, 8 superintendents, and 5 other upper level administrative positions. Descriptive data on protege positions held when the mentoring relationship began are presented in Table 5.

The range of age groups included the following: 40-49 (N=11); 50-59 (N=25); and, 60-69(N=2). Most of the superintendents fell into the age groups of 50-59 (66%) and 40-49 (29%) which accounted for 95% of the total sample;

Table 4

Descriptive Data on Mentor Position

(N=38)

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Assistant Principal	2	5.1	5.1
Middle School Principal	2	5.1	10.3
Jr. High School Principal	2	5.1	15.4
High School Principal	4	10.3	25.6
Assistant Superintendent	5	12.8	38.5
Deputy Superintendent	1	2.6	41.0
Superintendent	17	43.6	84.6
Other	6	15.4	100.0

Table 5

Descriptive Data on Protege Positions

(N=39)

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Teacher	8	20.5	20.5
Assistant Principal	5	12.8	33.3
Elementary School Principal	1	2.6	35.9
Middle School Principal	2	5.1	41.0
Jr. High School Principal	1	2.6	43.6
High School Principal	1	2.6	46.2
Assistant Superintendent	6	15.4	61.5
Deputy Superintendent	2	5.1	66.7
Superintendent	8	20.5	87.2
Other	5	12.8	100.0

the remaining 5% was accounted for in the 60-69 age group. Descriptive data on the range of superintendents' age groups are presented in Table 6.

Analysis of Data

This section reports the main analysis of data for each research question. Two hypotheses were developed from the research question. Answers to the questions be given with the corresponding findings from the analysis of variance procedures that were used to determine if there were significant differences between gender mentor/protege group scores on The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument.

Only one questionnaire representing the female mentor/male protege group was received. Due to an extremely small sample size, this mentor/protege group was excluded from the statistical analysis.

Research Question 1

How do male and female superintendents rate same-gender versus cross-gender mentor' helpfulness on the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument?

Using a Likert scale of 1.0 (Strongly Disagree) to 5.0 (Strongly Agree), the following responses have been

Table 6

Descriptive Data on Superintendents by Range of Age Groups

(N=39)

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Ages 40-49	12	30.8	30.8
Ages 50-59	25	64.1	94.9
Ages 60-69	2	5.1	100.0

evaluated according to how proteges rated the degree of their mentors' helpfulness on the 50 items of the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument.

Male proteges rated their male mentors' helpfulness with a combined observed mean score of 18.83 on career functions and a combined observed mean score of 27.93 on psychosocial functions. This indicated that male proteges agreed with the 50 items on The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument. Overall, male proteges rated their male mentors favorably, with above average scores.

Female proteges rated their male mentors' helpfulness with a combined observed mean score of 16.45 on career functions and a combined observed mean score of 25.41 on psychosocial functions. This indicated that female proteges agreed with the 50 items on The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring functions Instrument. Overall, female superintendents rated their male mentors favorably, with above average scores.

Female superintendent proteges rated their female mentors' helpfulness with a combined observed mean score of 18.66 on career functions and a combined observed mean score of 28.67 on psychosocial functions. This indicated that female proteges agreed with the 50 items on the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring functions Instrument. Overall,

female superintendents rated their male mentors favorably, with above average scores. Table 7 presents the combined observed mean scores for the career and psychosocial mentoring functions.

Analyses and Tests of Hypotheses

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis used for testing the two hypotheses. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure was conducted to identify differences between groups on specific career and psychosocial functions. Presented below are Hypotheses 1 and 2, rationales for each hypotheses, a summary of means and the univariate analysis of variance test results.

Hypothesis 1 stated: Male superintendents will rate same-gender mentors' helpfulness significantly higher than cross-gender mentors' helpfulness on career and psychosocial functions.

Research indicates that male proteges have consistently chosen male mentors to assist them in the pursuance of upper level positions in education administration primarily because male mentors have exchanged knowledge regarding the political infrastructure of the educational arena (Crabb, 1997; Daloz, 1999) , have provided valuable input on how to develop personal and professional goals and objectives (Daresh and Playko, 1990;

This section presents the results of the statistical analyses used for testing the two hypotheses. The analyses

Table 7

Combined Means Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions

(N=38)

Male Protege Combined Mean Scores of Male Mentors

Career Functions = 18.83

Psychosocial Functions = 27.93

Female Protege Combined Mean Scores of Male Mentors

Career Functions = 16.45

Psychosocial Functions = 25.41

Female Protege Combined Mean Rating of Female Mentors

Career Functions = 18.66

Psychosocial Functions = 28.67

Glass, T. & Bjork, L., & Brunner, C. 2000) have provided coaching and sponsoring (Kram, 1983; Kowalski, 1999; Kososke & Pollack, 1998), have advised and counseled (Daresh and Playko, 1990; Glass, T. & Bjork, L., & Brunner, C. 2000) and have served as role models for male proteges (Kanter, 1977; Konnert and Augenstein, 1995).

Hypothesis 2 stated that female superintendents will rate cross-gender mentors' helpfulness significantly higher than same-gender mentors' helpfulness on career functions, but will rate same-gender mentors' helpfulness significantly higher than cross-gender mentors' helpfulness on career and psychosocial functions.

According to the literature, female proteges have selected male mentors for assistance with career functions because male mentors have shared knowledge with female proteges about power issues and organizational politics (Gupton and Slick, 1996; Pavan, 1986; Phillips, 1977), have provided advise on how to develop professional goals and objectives (Peluchette & Jeanquart, 2000; Ruhl-Smith, & Shen, 1991) have provided coaching and sponsoring (Shakeshaft, 1987, 1989; Sheehy, 1976, 1995) and have taught them about the dynamics of team playing. In like manner, female mentors have chosen female proteges for assistance with psychosocial functions because women have

served as role models (Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993), have provided encouragement and support (Gupton and Slick, 1996; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993, Pavan, 1986).

Tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2

A univariate F test (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between mentor and protege group scores on the career and psychosocial functions scales which are sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, challenging assignments, coaching, office politics, protection, role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling and friendship. The level of significance was set at the .05 level. Table 8 presents the results of the one-way analysis of variance.

Findings indicated no statistical significant differences between group scores for coaching, office politics, challenging assignments, protection, role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, and counseling. However, three ANOVAS were statistically significant (sponsorship, exposure and friendship). The hypotheses were rejected. The effect size was relatively large. Although both hypotheses were rejected, it was interesting to note that the test for main effects indicated three variables were statistically significant for the career

Table 8

Survey of Results of One way Analysis of Variance

Variable	MSE	F	p	Eta²
Sponsorship	12.26	3.90	<.05	.182
Exposure/Visibility	8.72	4.05	<.05	.188
Coaching	6.15	1.40	NS	
Politics	4.96	1.01	NS	
Challenging Assignments	12.25	1.99	NS	
Protection	10.31	.97	NS	
Role Modeling	7.41	1.46	NS	
Acceptance-and-Confirmation	10.0	1.40	NS	
Counseling	20.55	2.65	NS	
Friendship	10.18	4.28	<.05	.197

*df= 1/53 for all F's

function of sponsorship and exposure as well as the psychosocial mentoring function of friendship.

Observed group means scores and standard deviation for the male protege-male mentor, male protege- female mentor, and female protege-female mentor groups are presented in Table 9. Because group sample size was small, the means were evaluated with caution.

Multiple comparison were carried out using Tukey's HSD test. The computed pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 10.

No statistically significant difference was found between the group scores for coaching, office politics, challenging assignments, protection, role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, and counseling. However, statistically significant differences were found to exist between the male mentor/male protege group and the male mentor/female protege group at the .05 level of significance for the career function of sponsorship.

Statistically significant differences were also found to exist between the male mentor/female protege group and the female mentor/female protege group at the .05 level of significance for the career function of exposure. As well, statistically significant differences were also found to exist between the male mentor/male protégé group and the

Table 9
Group Means and Standard Deviation

Variable	Mentor-Protege	Means	S	N
Sponsorship	Male-Male	27.00	3.14	18
	Male-Female	23.86	4.33	14
	Female-Female	27.50	1.87	6
Exposure	Male-male	17.72	2.16	18
	Male-female	15.29	4.10	14
	Female-Male	18.83	1.17	6
Coaching	Male-Male	16.44	2.20	18
	Male-Female	15.43	2.98	14
	Female-Female	17.33	1.86	6
Politics	Male-Male	12.89	2.14	18
	Male-Female	11.86	2.45	14
	Female-Female	13.00	1.90	6
Challenging Assignments	Male-Male	21.56	3.90	18
	Male-Female	20.29	3.52	14
	Female-Female	23.67	1.37	6

Table 9
Group Means and Standard Deviation Cont.

Variable	Mentor-Protege	Means	S	N
Role Modeling	Male-Male	26.44	2.57	18
	Male-Female	25.07	2.89	14
	Female-Female	27.00	2.76	6
Acceptance and Confirmation	Male-Male	31.17	3.30	18
	Male-Female	30.00	2.77	14
	Female-Female	32.50	3.51	6
Counseling	Male-Male	30.28	3.58	18
	Male-Female	26.93	4.80	14
	Female-Female	30.83	6.37	6
Friendship	Male-Male	22.33	2.09	18
	Male-Female	19.29	3.81	14
	Female-Female	22.67	4.32	6

Table 10
Results of Multiple Comparisons Using Tukey's HSD Test

Variables	Group	Mean diff.	Std. error	P
Sponsorship	Male mentor/male protege v. Male mentor/female protege	3.14	1.27	<. 05
Exposure	Male mentor/female protege v. Female mentor/female protege	3.55	1.44	<. 05
Friendship	Male mentor/male protege v. Male mentor/female protege	3.05	1.34	<. 05

male mentor/female protege group at the .05 level of significance for the psychosocial function of friendship. The average mean career mentoring function of exposure was greater than the average mean career mentoring Function of sponsorship and the psychosocial mentoring function for friendship.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

Findings for Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the study presented data from 39 mentor/protege groups, which included 20 female superintendents and 19 male superintendent proteges. Thirty-two male mentors and 7 female mentors responded to the questionnaire. The three mentor/protege groups consisted of 18 male mentors/male proteges, 14 male mentors/female proteges and 6 female mentors/female proteges. Due to an extremely small sample size, the fourth mentor/ protege group, female mentor/male protege, was excluded from the statistical analysis. Tables 1 presented the gender composition for the mentors and protégés.

The superintendents were composed of a group of 31 Caucasians (79.5%) and 8 African Americans (20.5%). There were no practicing protege representatives from Native-American or Asian-American decent. Superintendents identified the ethnicity of their mentors, which included 33 Caucasians (85.6%) and 6 African-Americans (15.4%). The number of mentors from a specific race/ethnic group was skewed in the direction of the Caucasian mentors, who hold

the majority of upper level positions within the American public school education administration hierarchy. African-Americans were the only other ethnic group represented within this study. Tables 2 and 3 present the gender and ethnic composition of the superintendents.

Positions the superintendents held when the mentoring relationship began, ranged for the assistant principal to the superintendency position. The percentages of proteges holding these positions included the following: teacher (20.5%), assistant principal (12.8%), elementary school principal (35.9%), middle school principal (5.1%), junior high school principal (2.6%), high school principal (2.6%), assistant superintendent (15.4%), deputy superintendent (5.1%) superintendent (20.5%) as well as 5 (12.8%) mentors holding other upper-level educational administrative positions. Tables 4 and 5 presented the positions of the proteges and mentors when the mentoring relationship began.

Most of the proteges fell into the age groups of 50-59 (66%) and 40-49 (29%), which accounted for 95% of the total sample; the remaining 5% was accounted for in the 60-69 age group. Descriptive data on the range of superintendents' age groups are presented in Table 6. Proteges held positions in 20 rural, 10 suburban, and nine urban school districts.

Findings for Research Questions

The research questions were answered using a Likert scale of 1.0 (Strongly Disagree) to 5.0 (Strongly Agree), the following responses have been evaluated according to how superintendent proteges rated the degree of their mentors' helpfulness on the 50 items of the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument. Thirty-eight mentor/ protege cases were accepted and organized into four groups that included male mentor/male protege, male mentor/female protege, female mentor/female protege and female mentor/ male protege. Note, the researcher received 1 female mentor/male protege group questionnaire. This group was excluded from the statistical analysis because of small sample size.

Research question 1. How do male and female superintendents rate same-gender versus cross-gender mentors' helpfulness on the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument?

Male and female superintendents rated their male and female mentors in a similar way, indicating agreement with the 50 items on the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument with combined observed mean scores

ranging from 16.45 to 18.83 on career functions and 25.41 to 28.67 on psychosocial functions. Overall, superintendents rated their mentors favorably with above average scores. Table 7 presents the superintendents/ combined observed mean scores of their mentors.

Findings for the Tests of Hypotheses

A univariate F test (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between mentor and protege group scores on the career and psychosocial functions scales which are sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, challenging assignments, coaching, office politics, protection, role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling and friendship. The level of significance was set at the .05 level. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were rejected.

However, it was interesting to note that three ANOVAs were significant for the mentoring functions friendship, sponsorship, and exposure. Looking at the combined mean scores fo the psychosocial function of friendship, male mentor/male protege group scores (22.33) were significantly higher than male mentor/female protege group scores (19.29). Hypothesis 1 was accepted only for this psychosocial mentoring function.

Looking at the combined observed mean scores for the career function of exposure, female mentor/female protege group scores (18.83) were significantly higher than male mentor/female protege group scores (15.29). Hypothesis 2 was accepted only for this function.

Looking at the combined observed mans for the career function of sponsorship, male mentor/male protege groups rated their same gender mentors helpfulness higher than male mentor/female protege groups (23.86).

Table 9 presents the observed group means and standard deviation. Table 10 presents pairwise comparisons using Tukey's ASD.

Conclusions

From the analyses of the data obtained from the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument, and the Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions scales, the following conclusions are drawn concerning this study:

1. Male and female superintendent's rating scores of their male and female mentors' helpfulness on career and psychosocial functions were considered to be above average.
2. There are no statistically significant differences

between male and female superintendents' rating scores of their male and female mentors' helpfulness on career and psychosocial functions.

3. Male mentors were chosen more frequently by both male and female superintendents. Few females were selected as mentors.

4. Mentors for Caucasian and female superintendents were predominately Caucasian males.

5. The findings and conclusions drawn from this study are limited only to the population of superintendents from South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Florida.

6. There were no statistically significant differences found between same-gender and cross-gender mentor/protege groups' scores for helpfulness on career and psychosocial mentoring functions with the exception of sponsorship, friendship and exposure, which were significant for each ANOVA test.

Implications of the Study

Based upon these findings of this study, several recommendations can be made concerning the establishment of mentoring relationships in the field of Education Administration. These recommendations are for potential proteges who want to further their careers; for potential mentors, who want to facilitate the careers of others; and

for organizations who want to implement formal mentoring programs.

Implications of Professional Educators

Potential Proteges

Mentoring has become an important avenue to accessing upper level positions in Education Administration. However, the rules of the mentoring game must be continuously and carefully examined if women and men are to be provided the same opportunities for career advancement. Findings from this research indicate that mentoring relationships have the potential for provided career and psychosocial support. If individuals decide to establish a mentoring relationship, then the potential exists for that individual to make smoother, faster, more successful career transitions.

Potential Mentors

Implications for potential mentors lie in the importance of identifying and assessing the nature of professional and personal growth. By establishing a mentoring relationship, administrators may direct their strengths, talents and skills and help aspiring administrators; new administrator or incumbent administrators maximize their professional potential and

developmental needs. In doing so, administrators may pass knowledge, values and help others with career and psychological support. Interactive relationships, such as the mentoring relationships could provide administrators with the feeling of personal as well as professional satisfaction and accomplishment.

Organizations

Educational organizations can implement a process for developing mentoring relationships in a consistent, systematic fashion. Developing formal mentoring programs and institutes can bring organizations closer to achieving this objective. Mentoring programs may be developed and implemented through staff development departments and should be made available to all aspiring and practicing administrators who wish to participate in them. The mentoring relationship becomes mutually beneficial when these programs are perceived as effective, important as well as easily accessible.

Mentoring programs should be developed with care and should mirror the values of the particular organization. Utilizing mentoring research such as this study and other studies may help organizations gain a greater understanding of the dynamics, concepts and challenges of effective mentoring programs and relationships.

In addition, mentoring programs need be assessed for effectiveness. Utilizing The Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Functions Instrument could be an assessment tool to gather the necessary data to ensure program quality and effectiveness. Hopefully, all those involved in the mentoring program would perceive that organizations were providing them with opportunities to fulfill professional desires. If they recognize the organizations as a supportive, caring entity, then their personal needs as well as career aspirations will be enhanced.

Recommendations for Future Study

The dynamic of the mentoring relationship is ever evolving; therefore, research pertaining to the nuances of mentoring relationships and program effectiveness is colossal. Because this study was based on a survey questionnaire, future research using quantitative as well as qualitative measurement procedures could well forecast the benefits and outcomes of a mentoring relationship. Further, qualitative studies could be attained that investigate the challenges incurred by those superintendent protégés involved in a female mentor/male protege mentoring relationship. Further study might reveal strategies, expectations and functions necessary to increase

effectiveness of both male and female protégés and mentors n education administration.

Larger sample sizes could be obtained for the purpose of generalization to a broader population. Further, in an effort to understand the plight of aspiring male and female superintendents, different groups of superintendents need to be analyzed. Comparison groups could include the following:

1) Studies comparing groups of same-gender and/or cross-gender superintendents from other regions of the United States:

2) Studies comparing groups of same-gender or cross-gender superintendents with various ethnic backgrounds;

3) Studies comparing groups of aspiring superintendents prior to reaching the superintednency;

4) Studies comparing only male and only female groups of superintendents at various stages/positions within professional careers;

5) Comparing groups of superintendents involved in formalized mentoring program at various stages of their career.

Finally, in order to enhance the understanding of mentoring experiences, practices, and occurrences, both mentor and protégé prospects could be researched.

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